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Condensate Droplet Size Distribution and Heat Transfer on

Hierarchical Slippery Lubricant Infused Porous Surfaces

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Abstract

In recent years, slippery lubricant infused porous surfaces (SLIPSs) have received important attention due to their excellent performance in applications such as condensation, low friction, self-cleaning and anti-icing, which is owed to the presence of an infused lubricant or oil effectively decreasing the liquid-solid interactions and enhancing droplet mobility when compared to hydrophobic and/or to superhydrophobic surfaces. In this work, we fabricate and make use of hierarchical micro-/nano-structured and nano-structured SLIPSs for condensation phase-change. Optical microscopy and macroscopic experimental observations are coupled to extract the droplet size distribution at different condensation times. Heat transfer resistance

model through individual condensing droplets is further extended here to account for the presence of both micro- and nano-structures. Then, heat transfer through individual droplets is coupled to the droplet number density to estimate the heat transfer at different condensation times and their overall performance. A 100% greater heat transfer performance is reported on nano-structured SLIPSs when compared to hierarchical micro-/nano-structure SLIPSs due to the greater thermal resistance imposed by the micro-structures and the lubricant present within the structures. We conclude that although the presence of micro-structures shifts the droplet number density towards greater population of smaller sized droplets, this effect is not enough to overcome the greater heat transfer predicted on solely nano-structured SLIPSs. Findings presented here complement current research on SLIPSs and condensation phase-change and are of great importance for the effective design of SLIPSs with enhanced condensation heat transfer performance.

Keywords: Slippery Lubricant Infused Porous Surfaces, Condensation Phase-Change, Heat Transfer, Hierarchical SLIPS, Droplet Size Distribution, Heat Transfer Resistance Based Model

Nomenclature

Variables

$S_{\rm RMS}$	average surface roughness [µm]
$S_{\rm z}$	distance between the highest top and the lowest valley $[\mu m]$
f	solid fraction [-]
fn	solid fraction of nano-structures [-]
φ_{m}	solid fraction of micro-structures [-]
θ_{a}	advancing contact angle [°]
θ_{i}	intrinsic contact angle on the flat hydrophobic surface [°]
$\theta_{\rm r}$	receding contact angle [°]
$\theta_{\rm e}$	average contact angle [°]
θ_{a_SHS}	advancing angle on SHS [°]
r	droplet radius [m]
r _e	effective droplet radius [m]
<i>r</i> _{range}	average droplet radius between the two extremes of the size range [m]
<i>r</i> _{min}	minimum radius for nucleation [m]
<i>r</i> _{max}	maximum experimental radius [mm]
$T_{\rm amb}$	ambient temperature [K or °C]
T_{sub}	substrate temperature [K or °C]
$T_{\rm sat}$	saturation temperature [K or °C]
ΔT	subcooling condition [K]
$\Delta T_{\rm c}$	difference of temperature due to the Kelvin effect [K]
RH	relative humidity [%]
Ns	nucleation density before coalescence [#/mm ²]
n(r)	droplet number density for sizes below the effective radius $r_{\rm e}$ [#/mm ³]
N(r)	droplet number density for sizes above the effective radius $r_{\rm e}$ [#/mm ³]
$N_{\rm re}(r)$	number of droplets of certain radius r [#]
A	area of observation [mm]
t	time [min]
$\gamma_{\rm wa}$	surface tension water-air [N/m]
$ ho_{ m w}$	density of the condensate [kg/m3]
$h_{ m fg}$	latent heat of condensation [kJ/kg]
q''	theoretical surface heat flux $[W/m^2]$
$q_{ m d}$	heat transfer individual droplets [W]

$q_{\rm d/n/c/l}$	heat transfer on nano-structured SLIPS [W]				
$q_{\rm d/m/n/c/l}$	heat transfer on micro-/nano-structured SLIPS [W]				
<i>R</i> _i	interfacial thermal resistance for condensation [K/W]				
R _d	droplet thermal resistance [K/W]				
R_1	lubricant thermal resistance [K/W]				
<i>R</i> _{Cu}	micro-structure thermal resistance [K/W]				
R _{m/n/c/l}	micro-/nano-structures, hydrophobic coating and lubricant resistance [K/W]				
$R_{\rm n/c/l}$	nano-structures, hydrophobic coating and lubricant thermal resistance [K/W]				
h _i	condensation interfacial heat transfer coefficient $[W/m^2/K]$				
α	accommodation coefficient [-]				
$R_{\rm g}$	specific gas constant [J/kg/K]				
$ ho_{ m v}$	water vapour specific density [kg/m ³]				
$k_{\rm w}$	water thermal resistance [W/m/K]				
$\delta_{ m l}$	thickness of the lubricant [m]				
$k_{\rm l}$	thermal conductivity of the lubricant [W/m/K]				
$\delta_{ m c}$	thickness of the hydrophobic coating [m]				
k _c	thermal conductivity of the hydrophobic coating [W/m/K]				
$h_{\rm CuO}$	height of the nano-structures [m]				
k _{CuO}	thermal conductivity of the copper oxide [W/m/K]				
$h_{\rm Cu}$	height of micro-structures [m]				
$k_{\rm Cu}$	thermal conductivity of copper [W/m/K]				
а	droplet number density coefficient [-]				
b	droplet number density slope [-]				
Abbre	viations				
SLIPS	Slippery Lubricant Infused Porous Surface				
SHS	Superhydrophobic Surface				
FWC	Filmwise Condensation				
DWC	Dropwise Condensation				
VOCs	Volatile Organic Compounds				
САН	Contact Angle Hysteresis [°]				
SI	Supplementary Information				
GPL	General Purposes Lubricant				

3

1D

One Dimensional

1 Introduction

2 Industrial and everyday applications such as power generation, air conditioning and electronics cooling rely on filmwise condensation (FWC) as the main condensation mechanism. FWC 3 ensues on high surface energy materials such as copper, aluminium, titanium or stainless steel 4 typically employed on the condenser side [1, 2]. Nonetheless, in the past decades, aiming to 5 improve the heat transfer performance of the condenser, researchers have made use of 6 hydrophobic coatings that can lower the energy of the surface prompting the continuous 7 8 nucleation, growth and departure of the condensate via gravitational forces in a dropwise 9 condensation (DWC) fashion[3-6]. Owing to the continuous condensate removal of millimetre droplets, DWC on hydrophobic surfaces provides greater heat transfer coefficients than FWC 10 11 [7-9]. In addition to hydrophobic surfaces, micro-/nano-textured surfaces coated with a thin 12 conformal hydrophobic layer, so called superhydrophobic surfaces (SHSs), have demonstrated to provide excellent low adhesion and enhanced condensation heat transfer performance when 13 compared to both hydrophilic and hydrophobic surfaces [10-12]. While on hydrophobic 14 surfaces droplets must grow to sizes in the order of a millimetre before the condensate sheds 15 the surface, the extreme low adhesion of the condensate to SHSs can ensue removal of droplets 16 via gravity and coalescence-induced droplet-jumping of droplets with sizes in the 17 18 submillimetre/micrometre range [11, 13, 14] or even in the submicron range [15]. SHSs can enhance the overall condensation heat transfer performance up to 25% when compared to DWC 19 on hydrophobic surfaces and up to 5 times when compared to FWC [11, 16, 17]. We note here 20 that most heat transfer via condensation takes place for droplet sizes in the submillimetre range 21 [2, 18, 19]. 22

The excellent condensation heat transfer, water repellency, anti-fogging and anti-icing properties of SHSs are owed to the presence of air pockets entrapped within the hydrophobic micro- and/or nano-structures, which effectively decrease the solid-liquid binary interactions 26 and hence the adhesion of the condensate to the surface [20, 21]. In addition to SHSs, hydrophilic micropillared surfaces [22], hydrophobic-hydrophilic patterned wettability 27 surfaces [23, 24], surfaces with ambiphilic micro-structures (hydrophilic micropillars with 28 hydrophobic tops) [25, 26], nano-structured porous surfaces coated with a hydrophobic 29 promoter layer [27], and/or superhydrophobic/superhydrophilic patterned wettability surfaces 30 [14, 28, 29], are other approaches adopted for the control of the condensate aiming to improve 31 32 the heat transfer performance during phase-change. More recently, continuous nucleation, growth and departure of droplets via gravity and/or coalescence-induced droplet-jumping in a 33 34 DWC fashion was achieved on bare structured micro- and nano-structured copper oxide surfaces exposed to the ambient [30, 31]. Upon exposure to laboratory conditions, the 35 adsorption of hydrophobic volatile organic compounds (VOCs) onto the copper oxide nano-36 37 structures mask the intrinsic hydrophilic wettability of the metal empowering the 38 superhydrophobic properties of such engineered surfaces [30, 31]. The transition from hydrophilic to hydrophobic upon adsorption of VOCs was earlier reported on smooth metals 39 and rare earth oxides by Preston et al. [32] while the transition from hydrophilic to 40 superhydrophobic on boron nitride nanotubes was reported by Boinovich et al. [33]. 41

42 If we now impregnate the micro- and/or the nano-structures of a SHS with a lubricant or an oil, a new range of low adhesion water-repellent surfaces coined slippery lubricant infused 43 porous surfaces (SLIPSs) emerge [34, 35]. SLIPSs have been reported to provide extremely 44 45 low adhesion between the liquid and the infused surface, prompting droplet self-removal for surface inclination angles as low as 5°, and offering very low contact angle hysteresis ca. 2.5° 46 [36-38]. SLIPSs offer virtually no-pinning due to the smoothness of the lubricant layer and to 47 the more affinity of the lubricant for the surface, *i.e.*, for the hydrophobic coating, hindering 48 49 the condensate substrate intimate interactions [37, 39, 40]. Furthermore, SLIPSs surfaces can overcome the high adhesion of droplets sitting in the Wenzel state as per the recently reported 50

51 slippery Wenzel state on lubricant infused hierarchical micro- and nano-textured SLIPSs[13]. Some of the applications where SLIPSs excel are self-cleaning [41], drag reduction [42], anti-52 icing [43], water harvesting [44], along with their self-healing capabilities [35]. In addition to 53 the abovementioned applications, SLIPSs are excellent candidates for condensation heat 54 transfer providing up to 100% greater heat transfer coefficients for water when compared to 55 hydrophobic and/or to SHSs [45], and 400% and 450% enhancement when compared to FWC 56 57 for water and toluene, respectively [46]. The excellent low adhesion of SLIPSs performing in a DWC manner has also been proven even for low surface tension fluids such as: octane, 58 59 hexane and pentane [39]. Thereafter, Weisensee et al. provided a coupled experimental and analytical methodology for the estimation of the heat transfer performance on SLIPSs as a 60 function of the coating thickness and the solid fraction, reporting ca. 12 times better heat 61 62 transfer when compared to FWC [2]. More recently, continuous DWC of low surface tension 63 ethanol with the consequent enhancement in heat transfer performance has been reported on functionalised copper oxide nanostructured surfaces infused with KrytoxTM 1525 lubricant [47]. 64 To recap, SLIPSs present important advantages when compared to hydrophobic surfaces and 65 to SHSs such as: occurrence of DWC for low-surface tension fluids with quick droplet 66 shedding opposed to FWC taking place on hydrophobic surfaces or SHSs [39, 46, 47]; 67 occurrence of slippery Wenzel state while on SHSs droplets remain pinned to the structures, 68 i.e., rose petal state [48]; self-healing properties as the lubricant film can wick into lubricant 69 70 depleted zones or within structural damaged areas [35]; presence of a protective lubricant layer 71 against corrosion preventing the direct interaction between the environment and the structured surface underneath the oil[49], as well as anti-icing [43] and anti-fouling and/or anti-scale [50] 72 73 enhanced capabilities, owed to the reduced adhesion and interactions, etc. More specifically, in the context of this manuscript, we make use of SLIPSs as per their enhanced droplet mobility 74

of small droplets, i.e., greater droplet removal frequency, and enhanced droplet shedding
velocities when compared to hydrophobic surfaces and to SHSs [51].

77 Aiming to better understand the interactions between fluids and SLIPSs, lubricant viscosity [2, 37, 48, 52], presence or absence of nano-structures on a micropillared surface [51], and the 78 79 spacing between micro-structures [37], are some of the parameters previously addressed in the literature. The viscosity of the lubricant affects droplet mobility with greater shedding 80 velocities in the case of low surface tension lubricants either upon droplet deposition on an 81 82 inclined surface [37, 52] or during dynamic condensation [2, 39]. Smith et al. investigated the effect of micro-structure spacing upon droplet deposition on micro-posts (in absence of a nano-83 scale roughness) reporting a decrease in the roll-off angle as the spacing was increased [37]. 84 85 By increasing the surface roughness, i.e., decreasing the solid fraction, Dai et al., observed an increase in the apparent contact angle of deposited water droplets, which can be directly 86 87 associated with a decrease in the effective droplet-SLIPSs adhesion[43]. Anand et al., compared the condensation behaviour on a micro-/nano-structured SHS to that of a micro-88 /nano-structured SLIPS [51]. They reported on the effective droplet mobility of droplets below 89 90 the submillimetre range on SLIPSs; whereas on SHSs, droplets with sizes above 3 millimetres were necessary in order to overcome the adhesion to the surface [51]. On other hand, a 10 fold 91 92 increase in the amount of condensate collected was reported for condensation on slippery asymmetric bumps by combining the macroscopic bumps of the dessert beetle with the 93 94 asymmetric features of a cactus spine and with the slippery nature of the pitcher plant when 95 compared to a flat SLIPSs [53]. From the above literature, it is clear that the surface structure 96 induces different droplet-surface adhesion as exemplified by the different apparent and rolling angles reported when increasing the spacing between structures, i.e., when decreasing the solid 97 98 fraction [37, 48]. In essence, in this work, two cases where the effective area fraction is decreased as a consequence of the presence of micro-structures and lubricant oil present within 99

them are compared to two other cases with absence of micro-structures. In addition, and despite 100 of the extensive amount of experimental research carried out in the past 9 years on the 101 fundamentals of droplets on SLIPSs and on applied heat transfer, the presence of micro-102 structures as in the work of Anand et al. [51] and the absence of micro-structures underneath 103 the infused lubricant as in the work of Weisensee et al. [2] during condensation have not been 104 compared to date. Hence, in the present work, we make use of SLIPSs fabricated following 105 106 facile and easy scalable etching and oxidation procedure as in the work of Zhu et al., and in our earlier works [54-57]. 107

In the present work, two different SHSs varying in the size and density of the micro-108 structures, *i.e.*, big size and high density of micro-structures and small size and low density of 109 micro-structures, were prepared. In addition, two nano-structured SHSs with similar size and 110 density of the nano-structures were also fabricated. After fabrication, SHSs were infused with 111 112 a low energy lubricant to create our SLIPSs. Finally, the condensation performance on all four SLIPSs was addressed inside an environmental chamber by means of optical microscopy and 113 macroscopic experimental observations. From optical microscopy and macroscopic 114 experimental observations, the droplet number density, N(r) [#/mm³] at different time intervals 115 on the different SLIPSs, was extracted. Then, to estimate the overall heat transfer performance, 116 the droplet number density is coupled with steady-state heat transfer conduction analysis 117 through individual droplets. The heat transfer model adopted here has been extended to account 118 for the presence of both micro- and nano-structures, contrasting to earlier models where only 119 120 the micro-structures [58] or the nano-structures on a SHS [9, 18] and on a SLIPS [2] were considered. Results show the better overall theoretical heat transfer performance of up to 100% 121 increase on nano-structured surfaces when compared to hierarchical micro-/nano-structured 122 123 SLIPSs. The worse heat transfer performance in the presence of micro-structures is owed to the additional heat transfer resistance imposed by the greater thickness of the micro-structures 124

125 and the impregnated lubricant present within the micro-structures. Although the presence of micro-structures seems to shift the droplet size distribution towards greater droplet size 126 numbers and smaller sizes, differences on the theoretical heat transfer through single droplets 127 overweight that of the droplet number density at any given time. Last, the periodicity of the 128 theoretical heat transfer calculations based on the different droplet number densities reported 129 at different condensation times as a consequence of the continuous nucleation, growth and 130 shedding of droplets in a DWC is presented and discussed for the first time. We conclude here 131 on the greater overall theoretical heat transfer on solely nano-structured surfaces independent 132 133 of the condensation time. Nonetheless, we would like to note that the observed shift of the droplet number density towards smaller droplet sizes on hierarchical micro-/nano-structured 134 SLIPS, presumably due to the lower adhesion to the surface, might in turn induce quicker 135 droplet shedding and improved heat transfer performance not captured by the overall 136 theoretical heat transfer resistance based model. 137

139 Experimental Procedure

140 Surface fabrication

Two hierarchical micro- and nano-structured SHSs varying in the size and the density of the 141 micro-structures were fabricated as in the work of Zhu et al. and Zhang et al. [54, 55, 57]. 142 Pristine copper plates of 10 x 10 mm² and 500 μ m in thickness were ultrasonicated in acetone, 143 then in ethanol and lastly in distilled water prior to drying by nitrogen gas to remove any 144 contaminant. Then, surfaces were immersed in a solution of 10 wt. % of HCl-H₂O to remove 145 the oxide layer. Thereafter, samples were further cleaned in an ultrasonic bath with distilled 146 water followed by drying with nitrogen gas. To create the different size and density of the 147 micro-structures, samples were subjected to a easily-scalable wet etching in 0.48 wt % H₂O₂-148 H₂O and 1.89 mol/L HCl-H₂O solution as in Ref. 59 [59]. Bigger size and greater density of 149 the micro-structures were conferred by dipping the copper substrate for longer time and at 150 151 higher temperature (1 hour at 60 °C versus 20 minutes at 17 °C) [55, 57]. Next, to provide the surfaces with the necessary nanoscale roughness for the effective infusion and stability of the 152 lubricant, both etched substrates were further oxidized in an aqueous solution of 2.5 mol/L 153 NaOH-H₂O and 0.1 mol/L ((NH)₄S₂O₈-H₂O) for 30 minutes at 70 °C [54, 55]. In addition, to 154 allow for comparison between hierarchical micro-/nano-structured SLIPSs to solely nano-155 structured ones, smooth copper plates, i.e., non-etched samples, were further oxidized in the 156 same aqueous solution of 2.5 mol/L NaOH-H₂O and 0.1 mol/L ((NH)₄S₂O₈-H₂O) for 30 157 minutes at 70 °C (as the micro-structured ones) and for 50 minutes at 15 °C. We henceforth 158 159 refer to the hierarchical micro-/nano-structured SLIPSs as Mn_{SLIPS} for high density and big size 160 of micro-structures and as mn_{SLIPS} for small size and low density of micro-structures. While solely nanostructured SLIPSs are referred as n_{SLIPS} for the small size blade-like of 161 162 nanostructures (similar to those on Mn_{SLIPS} and mn_{SLIPS}) and N_{SLIPS} for the large size needlelike nanostructures. After surface oxidation, all samples were immersed in a solution of 1% 163 POTS(1H,1H,2H,2H-Perfluorooctyltriethoxysilane)-ethanol for 12 hours at ambient 164

temperature, rendering the intrinsic wettability of the micro- and the nano-structures hydrophobic [60, 61]. We note here that the hydrophobicity of the nano-structures is a necessary condition on the here fabricated SLIPSs in order to induce the more wetting affinity of the lubricant to the surface when compared to water [57]. All chemicals used during the fabrication procedure were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (China).

170 Characterisation of SLIPSs before impregnation

The micro- and the nano-structure topography of Mn_{SLIPS}, mn_{SLIPS}, n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} before lubricant impregnation was assessed via Laser Optical Microscopy in a LEXT OLS4000 3D Laser Measuring Microscope from Olympus (Japan), and via Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) in a 3D Versa Dual Beam Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope from FEI Company (Hillsboro, Oregon, USA), respectively. Figure 1 includes 3D Laser Optical Microscopy profiles giving account of the different size and density of the micro-structures, while Figure 2 shows the surface nano-structures decorating the different surfaces:



178

Figure 1 - 3D Laser Optical Microscopy on (a) Mn_{SLIPS}, (b) mn_{SLIPS}, (c) n_{SLIPS} and (d) N_{SLIPS}, prior
to impregnation. Field of view is 128 x 128 μm² with a maximum height profile of 20 μm. Scale
intensity of the height of the 3D surface profile changes from deep blue (0 μm) to red (20 μm).



Figure 2 – High magnification Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) of the nanostructures
 decorating superhydrophobic (a) Mn_{SLIPS}, (b) mn_{SLIPS}, (c) n_{SLIPS} and (d) N_{SLIPS}, prior to
 impregnation. Scale bar is 1 μm.

182

186 From 3D Laser Optical Microscopy profiles presented in Figure 1, on one hand the greater size and density of the micro-structures on Mn_{SLIPS} (Figure 1a) when compared to mn_{SLIPS} 187 (Figure 1b) a evident. Structures with height and lateral dimensions in the order of 20 188 micrometres are reported on Mn_{SLIPS}, while on mn_{SLIPS} height and lateral dimensions are kept 189 below 10 micrometres as a consequence of the lesser time and lower temperature of the etching 190 process. On the other hand, the absence of flower like micro-structures on n_{SLIPS} (Figure 1c) 191 and on N_{SLIPS} (Figure 1d) when compared to Mn_{SLIPS} (Figure 1a) and mn_{SLIPS} (Figure 1b) is 192 highlighted. Further surface characterisation including 2D Laser Optical Microscopy profiles 193 194 of the four SLIPSs studied can be found in and Figure SI1 and Section SI.1 in the accompanying Supplementary Information (SI). When looking into the surface nano-structures included in 195 Figure 2, of importance is to stress the similar geometry, size and density of the nano-structures 196 197 decorating Mn_{SLIPS} (Figure 2a), mn_{SLIPS} (Figure 2b) and n_{SLIPS} (Figure 2c), which is owed to the very same oxidation procedure followed. When comparing Mn_{SLIPS} (Figure 2a), mn_{SLIPS} (Figure 2b) and n_{SLIPS} (Figure 2c) to N_{SLIPS} (Figure 2d) though, clear differences on the geometry (blade-like versus needle-like nano-structures) while slight differences on the random arrangement are revealed.

202 To provide further characterisation on the different surface structure depending on the 203 fabrication procedure, the average surface roughness S_{RMS} and the distance between the highest top and the lowest valley S_z were extracted from 3D Laser Optical Microscopy, which are 204 included in Table 1. In addition, the solid fraction *f* before impregnation was estimated making 205 use of the Cassie-Baxter equation as $f = (\cos \theta_{a \text{ SHS}} + 1)/(\cos \theta_{i} + 1)[55, 62]$, where $\theta_{a \text{ SHS}}$ 206 is the advancing contact angle of the superhydrophobic surface without impregnation and θ_i is 207 the intrinsic contact angle on the flat hydrophobic surface equals $115^{\circ} \pm 3^{\circ}$ [55]. The solid 208 fraction f for each of the structured surfaces fabricated before impregnation is then included in 209 Table 1. We note here that all surfaces before impregnation showed superhydrophobicity with 210 advancing contact angles above 155° as earlier reported [55]. 211

212 Characterisation of SLIPSs

After etching, oxidation and hydrophobization of the surfaces, coated samples were immersed 213 in Krytox® General Purpose Lubricant 103 (GPL103) from DuPontTM (USA). GPL103 has a 214 density of 1.92 kg/dm³ at 0 °C and a viscosity of 82 cSt at 20 °C. Next, advancing contact 215 angle, θ_a (°), and receding contact angle, θ_r (°), of the fabricated SLIPSs after impregnation 216 were measured in a custom-built goniometer and analysed using ImageJ snake-based approach 217 plugging [63, 64]. θ_a and θ_r were extracted from the shape of 3 microliter droplet sliding over 218 the different SLIPSs, which are included in Table 1. Standard deviations on θ_a , and θ_r were 219 obtained from 3 independent experiments. 220

Table 1 – Substrate characterization of Mn_{SLIPS} , mn_{SLIPS} , n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} as: S_{RMS} surface roughness (µm), S_z maximum distance between highest top and lowest valley of the microstructures (µm), f solid fraction prior to oil impregnation. θ_a advancing contact angle (°) and θ_r receding contact angle (°) on slippery lubricant infused porous surfaces after impregnation.

	Mn _{SLIPS}	mn _{SLIPS}	n _{SLIPS}	N _{SLIPS}
S _{RMS} (μm)	2.1 ± 0.5	1.4 ± 0.3	0.8 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.1
<i>S</i> _z (μm)	16.8	10.7	-	-
f	0.13	0.12	0.11	0.10
$ heta_{a}$ (°)	$114^{\circ} \pm 2^{\circ}$	$117^{\circ} \pm 1^{\circ}$	$118^{\circ} \pm 2^{\circ}$	$118^{\circ} \pm 1^{\circ}$
$ heta_{ m r}$ (°)	$111^{\circ} \pm 1^{\circ}$	$114^{\circ} \pm 1^{\circ}$	$115^{\circ} \pm 2^{\circ}$	$115^{\circ} \pm 1^{\circ}$

226 From the wettability characterisation presented above we stress here that the presence or absence of micro-structures underneath the infused lubricant does not influence considerably 227 the macroscopic θ_a and θ_r and/or the contact angle hysteresis (CAH) defined as CAH = $\theta_r - \theta_a$. 228 After characterising the surface structure and wettability of our SLIPSs, in order to fully 229 describe the interactions between sessile droplet and our SLIPSs, we further discuss on the 230 interactions between water droplets, the lubricant and the surface. On one hand, to satisfy the 231 stability of the SLIPSs upon interaction with water, the immiscibility between the lubricant and 232 water must be ensured, hence we make use of Krytox® GPL103 as per its earlier reported 233 immiscibility in water [65]. On the other hand, a layer of lubricant may develop over the droplet, 234 which is known as cloaking [37, 40, 65]. For moderate and high surface energy lubricant, the 235 spreading coefficient is typically negative and hence the encapsulation of the droplet by the 236 lubricant does not occur [37]. Whereas for a low surface tension lubricant and hence a positive 237 spreading coefficient, the lubricant does typically cloak/encapsulate the droplet [37]. In the 238 present cases, cloaking of the droplet by a thin lubricant film is expected [48, 57, 65]. The thin 239 nature of the cloaking film in the order of tens of nanometres should in turn not influence 240 considerably the theoretical heat transfer performance proposed here [2, 40]. 241

243 Experimental apparatus and procedure

All experimental observations were carried out in an environmental chamber PR-3KT from 244 ESPEC Corp. (Japan). Inside the environmental chamber, a custom-built Peltier stage, 245 connected to a PID controller and to a cooling bath both located outside the chamber, is placed 246 vertically. A custom-built copper block of the same area as the SLIPS samples (10 x 10 mm²) 247 was inserted in a thermally insulating TEFLON block both with thicknesses of 10 mm and 248 attached to the Peltier stage to ensure 1 dimensional (1D) heat transfer between the Peltier stage 249 and the SLIPSs. A thermocouple was then set at the centre of the copper block few millimetres 250 below the SLIPS sample. Then, SLIPSs was attached to the copper block using double side 251 carbon tape. To ensure homogenous conditions within the chamber, prior to condensation 252 experimental observations, the temperature T_{amb} and the relative humidity RH of the ambient 253 254 air inside the chamber, i.e., in the presence of non-condensable gases, were set at 30 °C \pm 1 °C and at 90% \pm 5% respectively for 30 minutes. While the substrate temperature T_{sub} was set at 255 256 35 °C, which is above the water dew temperature so to avoid any condensation. Thereafter, T_{sub} was lowered to 5 °C, environmental chamber was turned off and experimental observations 257 were recorded. We note here that in spite of the environmental chamber being turned off to 258 avoid any vibration, the overall relative humidity was within \pm 5% for the entire duration of 259 the experiments. However, locally near the surface, the concentration of the water vapour may 260 be lower than that reported by the chamber. In addition, the use of a non-long working distance 261 lens for the optical microscopy observations may also shield the homogeneous diffusion of 262 water vapour towards the surface. 263

To allow for the acquisition of the experimental observations, a CCD camera Sentech STC-MC152USB with a resolution of 1360 x 1024 pixels was utilised. On one hand, optical microscopy experimental observations were acquired by making use of a Keyence highresolution optical microscopy zoom lens VH-Z500R with a field of view of $(590 \pm 5) \times (445 \pm 5)$

5) μ m² while a halogen lamp was used for coaxial illumination. On the other hand, a RICOH 268 lens with a 30 mm spacing and a LED light were used for experimental observations at the 269 macroscale with a field of view of $(5.0 \pm 0.1) \times (3.8 \pm 0.1) \text{ mm}^2$. A snapshot of the experimental 270 setup inside of the chamber comprising: Peltier stage, optical microscope lens, CCD camera, 271 x-y stage, tubing, cables and connections is found in Figure 3a; while detailed schematics of 272 the complete setup is presented in Figure 3b. Snapshot including experimental setup and 273 274 schematics for macroscopic experimental observations can be found in Figure SI2 in Section SI.2 in the accompanying SI. 275



276

277 Figure 3 – (a) Snapshot of the experimental setup inside the environmental chamber including Peltier stage, electrical connections, thermocouple connected to PID controller, water pipes 278 connected to chiller, Copper-TEFLON block, SLIPS sample, CCD camera and optical 279 microscope zoom lens VH-Z500R for microscopic observations. (b) Schematic of the complete 280 281 experimental setup including environmental chamber, PID controller and chiller. Scale bar in Figure 3a is 100 mm. Snapshot and schematics of the experimental setup for macroscopic 282 283 experimental observations equipped with the RICOH lens and 30 mm spacing can be found in 284 Figure SI2 in Section SI.2 in the SI.

Optical microscopy and macroscopic experimental observations were used to accurately determine the droplet size distribution, *i.e.*, droplet number density N(r) [#/mm³] for the estimation of the theoretical heat transfer performance [2, 18, 66]. The droplet number density N(r) [#/mm³] and the size of the droplets on our SLIPSs were extracted using Image-Pro

289 Plus[67] as follows. At different intervals of time, characteristic *instantaneous* snapshots were analysed. From optical microscopy snapshots, the size and the number of droplets ranging 290 between 5 to 200 µm in radius were extracted by manually fitting circles to the contour of the 291 292 condensing droplets. In addition, to provide a more accurate characterisation of droplets with sizes in the order of tens of micrometres and below, optical microscopy areas were analysed 293 applying a 4x magnification. On other hand, macroscopic observations were utilised to extract 294 the size and the number of droplets with radius ranging from 50 µm to 1 mm. Due to the 295 different droplet sizes and a single plane of view, the radius of the droplet is estimated with 296 $\pm 10\%$ accuracy. Data extracted using Image-Pro Plus was then imported to Origin and plotted. 297 More details on the procedure followed for the analysis of the droplet number density can be 298 299 found in Section SI.3 in the accompanying SI.

301 **Results**

306

302 Condensation Dynamic Observations and Droplet Number Density Characterisation

303 Characteristic optical microscopy snapshots during condensation on Mn_{SLIPS} , mn_{SLIPS} , n_{SLIPS} , 304 and N_{SLIPS} at different condensation times t = 1, 10, 30 and 60 minutes, with t = 0 minutes as 305 the onset of nucleation, are presented in Figure 4:



307 Figure 4 – Characteristic optical microscopy snapshots of water condensation on (a-d) Mn_{SLIPS} , 308 (e-h) mn_{SLIPS} , (i-l) n_{SLIPS} and (m-p) N_{SLIPS} at 1 minute, 10 minutes, 30 minutes and 60 minutes with 309 t = 0 seconds as the onset of nucleation. Scale bars are 200 µm.

When looking into optical microscopy experimental observations, a similar qualitative condensation behaviour on all SLIPSs is reported. Heterogeneous nucleation takes place evenly all over the surface on all four samples. The minimum radius for nucleation $r_{\rm min}$ can be estimated by making use of Kelvin's equation as: $r_{min} = \frac{2\gamma_{\rm wa}T_{\rm sat}}{\rho_{\rm w}h_{\rm fg}\Delta T}$, where $\gamma_{\rm wa}$ is the

surface tension water-air, T_{sat} is the saturation temperature of the vapour, ρ_{w} is the density of 314 the condensate, $h_{\rm fg}$ is the latent heat of gas to liquid phase-change and ΔT is the subcooling 315 condition imposed, i.e., difference of temperature between the vapour T_{sat} and the condenser 316 substrate T_{sub} [68-70]. Hence, for the same substrate temperature and environmental conditions 317 reported here, $r_{\min} \approx 0.7$ nm independently of the SLIPS studied, which cannot be resolved 318 from optical microscopy observations. Then, as condensation develops, droplets grow via 319 320 direct condensation until they reach the effective transition radius, $r_{\rm e}$, which is directly related to the nucleation density N_s before any coalescence takes place as: $r_e = 1/\sqrt{4N_s}$ [2, 16, 19, 321 71]. Thereafter, droplets grow via direct condensation and via coalescence with neighbouring 322 ones (Figure 4a,e,i,o). After several minutes from the onset of condensation, droplets in the 323 order of tens to hundreds of micrometres can be observed as in Figure 4b,f,j,o. As two or more 324 droplets coalesce, due to the low adhesion of the condensing droplets to the SLIPSs, the droplet 325 contact line is able to depin and retract. Then new area in the vicinity of the recent coalesced 326 droplet is available for re-nucleation and growth of small droplets. Eventually big droplets 327 disappear from the field of view as when comparing Figure 4b&c, Figure 4g&h and Figure 4 328 k-l. From optical microscopy (area field of view 590 x 445 μ m²) we cannot precisely state if 329 droplets are actually being removed by gravity, by sweeping or by coalescence with other 330 331 neighbouring droplets. Further observations making use of macroscopic experiments were coupled with those at the micro-scale. An average shedding frequency of 4 ± 1 for Mn_{SLIPS}, 5 332 ± 1 for mn_{SLIPS}, 3 ± 1 for n_{SLIPS} and 3 ± 1 for N_{SLIPS} droplets per hour (major shedding events 333 averaged from 4 hours of experimental observations), demonstrated the cyclic nucleation, 334 growth, coalescence and shedding of the condensate occurring within the first 30 minutes. 335 Hence droplet number density analysis is here carried out and presented for the first 30 minutes. 336

To evaluate the condensation performance on each of the structured surfaces studied, we extract the droplet number density function of the droplet radius N(r) [#/mm³] from optical microscopy and from macroscopic experimental observations as $N(r) = \frac{N_{re}(r)/A}{r_{range}}$. Where $N_{re}(r)$ is the droplet density or number of droplets of certain radius r, A is the area of observation equals to the optical microscopy or to the macroscopic field of view adopted during the experimental observations and r_{range} is the average droplet radius between the two extremes of the size range at which the droplet number density $N_{re}(r)$ was retrieved. N(r) [#/mm³] relates then to the number and to the size of the droplets. The droplet number density N(r) [#/mm³] is eventually used to estimate the theoretical heat transfer performance [2, 9, 18, 19].

Next, the droplet number density N(r) [#/mm³] versus droplet radius r [µm] is plotted in Figure 5 for Mn_{SLIPS}, mn_{SLIPS}, n_{SLIPS}, and N_{SLIPS} at t = 1, 5, 10, 15, 22 and 30 minutes along with their average over the presented times:







352 Image-Pro Plus[67] for (a) Mn_{SLIPS} , (b) mn_{SLIPS} , (c) n_{SLIPS} , and (d) N_{SLIPS} at t = 1 (black squares),

353 5 (red circles), 10 (blue up-triangles) 15 (green rhomboids), 22 (purple hexagons), 30 (gold stars) 354 minutes, and the averaged droplet number density (cyan spheres). Coloured dashed lines are included to illustrate the power law trends for the different condensation times and average one. 355 In addition, droplet number density power-law fitting proposed by Weisensee et al. is included in 356 357 black solid line [2] and correlation developed by Rose and Glicksman is included in black dotted line [66, 72]. In vertical red dotted lines, the maximum experimental radius, r_{max} , obtained from 358 macroscopic observations of droplet shedding is represented. For a more direct comparison 359 360 between the different droplet number densities on the different SLIPSs, the reader is referred to 361 Figure 7b of the manuscript. Error bars represent the droplet number density standard deviation for the averaged case. Note error bars below x-axis as per the standard deviation in the same 362 363 order of magnitude as the averaged values.

From Figure 5, the droplet number density follows a similar qualitative behaviour regardless of the surface micro- and/or nano-structure underneath the lubricant and the condensing droplets. Reported trends on Mn_{SLIPS}, mn_{SLIPS}, n_{SLIPS}, and N_{SLIPS} are in qualitative agreement with the model proposed by Rose and Glicksman where $N(r) = \frac{1}{3\pi r_e^2 r} \left(\frac{r}{r}\right)^{-2/3}$ [66, 72], and the power-law fitting and average droplet density function included in the work of Weisensee *et al.*[2] (see Figure 5 and Figure 7b). Where $\hat{r} = r_{\text{max}}/1.3$ and r_{max} is calculated as: $r_{\text{max}} = \left(\frac{6(\cos\theta_r - \cos\theta_a)\sin\theta_e\gamma_{\text{wa}}}{\pi(2 - 3\cos\theta_e + \cos\theta_e)\rho_1 g}\right)^{0.5}$ with θ_e as the average

371 contact angle between the advancing and receding contact angles estimated as: $\theta_e = \cos^{-1}(0.5$ 372 $\cos\theta_a + 0.5\cos\theta_r)$.

We highlight here that neither the different micro-/nano-structures underneath the condensing droplets nor the different experimental conditions influenced qualitatively the intrinsic droplet number density, although some quantitative differences may arise from the different subcooling and environmental conditions[8, 66]. All trends follow: $N(r) = ar^{-b}$, where *b* represents the inclination of the slope and dictates how the droplet number density changes with droplet size, while *a* is a coefficient in the order of 10⁷ [2]. From Figure 5 it can

also be extracted that at early stages of condensation, *i.e.*, t = 1 minute, experimental coefficient 379 b is greater than for developed condensation times with values ranging between 3.2 and 4.0. 380 This is due to the great number of small droplets with sizes in the order of tens of micrometres 381 experiencing their initial growth and to the absence of droplets with sizes above tens of 382 micrometres. For greater condensation times, *i.e.*, $t \ge 5$ minutes, the average and standard 383 deviation of the coefficient b can be quantitatively compared to those earlier reported in 384 385 literature, which are further discussed below [2, 72-74]. Table 2 includes the different a and b coefficients extracted from experimental observations for t = 5, 10, 15, 22 and 30 minutes for 386 387 Mn_{SLIPS}, mn_{SLIPS}, n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS}:

388 Table 2 – Fitting coefficients *a* and *b* extracted from experimental observations at t = 5, 10, 15,

389 22 and 30 minutes and averaged one, following the trend $N(r) = ar^{-b}$ for Mn_{SLIPS}, mn_{SLIPS},

390 n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} . Standard deviation for *a* and *b* coefficients are estimated as $\pm 1 \times 10^7$ and ± 0.16 .

	Mn _{SLIPS}		mn _{SLIPS}		n _{slips}		N _{SLIPS}	
	а	b	а	b	а	b	а	b
<i>t</i> = 5	2.73x10 ⁷	3.28	5.51 x10 ⁶	2.97	5.27x10 ⁶	2.7	5.51 x10 ⁶	2.97
<i>t</i> = 10	6.17x10 ⁶	2.90	2.01 x10 ⁷	3.19	1.30x10 ⁷	3.12	9.47 x10 ⁶	2.90
<i>t</i> = 15	1.33x10 ⁷	2.96	1.75 x10 ⁷	3.11	1.54x10 ⁷	3.08	2.22 x10 ⁷	3.10
<i>t</i> = 22	1.51x10 ⁸	3.45	2.91 x10 ⁷	3.28	1.58x10 ⁷	3.02	9.41 x10 ⁶	2.89
<i>t</i> = 30	1.73x10 ⁷	3.06	9.35 x10 ⁶	3.07	1.27x10 ⁷	2.96	4.45 x10 ⁶	2.84
Average	3.74x10 ⁷	3.14	1.18 x10 ⁷	3.02	1.53x10 ⁷	2.97	9.26 x10 ⁶	2.86

391

392 Coefficients *b* calculated for Mn_{SLIPS} , mn_{SLIPS} , n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} included in Table 2 are 393 within the standard deviation and in agreement with the work of Weisensee *et al.* where *b* 394 equals 3.05 [2]. The less inclined slope reported in the case of nano-structured n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} 395 is, on the other hand, attributed to the presence of greater number of big droplets over the 396 intervals of time studied. In the case of n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} , droplets seem to be less mobile due

to stronger pinning to the surface when compared to Mn_{SLIPS} and mn_{SLIPS} . The greater b 397 coefficients reported here (Table 2) when compared to the works of Tanaka, Watanabe et al. 398 and Tanasawa (reported values between 2.6 and 2.7) are attributed to the better mobility of the 399 droplets in the submillimetre range on SLIPSs when compared to smooth hydrophobic surfaces 400 with shedding sizes above a millimetre [73-75]. When looking into the *a* coefficient, average 401 values reported in Table 2 are found within the same order of magnitude to those reported by 402 Weisensee *et al.* equal $6 \ge 10^7$, although the magnitude of the our coefficients is 2 to 5 times 403 lower as a consequence of the lower subcooling, absence of artificial sweeping and/or the 404 405 different heat flux conditions imposed [2, 76]. On one hand, when looking into the *instantaneous* droplet number densities reported at different condensation times (t = 5, 10, 15, 10, 15, 10, 15) 406 22 and 30 minutes), for droplets with sizes equal or smaller than 100 µm, quantitative 407 differences are found when comparing the coefficient *a* reported in Table 2. More specifically, 408 by making use of $N(r) = ar^{-b}$ and for a given radius of 1 µm, up to two orders of magnitude 409 difference in the droplet number density is put forward. On the other hand, the rather uniform 410 instantaneous droplet number densities reported in Figure 5 for droplets with sizes equal or 411 above 100 µm, opposed to the large variability on the droplet number distribution after a 412 413 shedding event, is attributed to the field of view adopted during the macroscopic experimental observations. The width of the observation area is approximately 5 mm while the size of the 414 shedding droplets is ca. 1 mm. Hence, after a shedding event, only a fraction of the surface 415 (between 1/5th and 1/3rd) is actually refreshed while the droplet number density remains the 416 unaltered on the non-refreshed area, which in turn returns the observed rather homogeneous 417 418 distribution throughout the *instantaneous* snapshots. Variations in the droplet number density at different condensation times were earlier pointed out by Rose and by other authors who 419 proposed the use of a *steady*/average droplet number density for the calculations of the 420 theoretical heat transfer in order to account for the variability of the droplet number density as 421

a consequence of the shedding/sweeping cycles [2, 66, 74, 77]. For a more direct comparison
between the different droplet number densities function of the SLIPSs, the reader can refer to
Figure 7b of the present manuscript. We note that the low magnification used in the
experiments did not allow for the accurate measurement of droplets with sizes below few
micrometres and/or for the observation of the self-propulsion of micro-droplets during
dropwise condensation on SLIPSs recently reported [78].

For the condensation times reported here, no appreciable shift of the DWC performance was 428 observed as a consequence of structure damage, peeling of the coating and/or oil depletion, 429 which in turn would induce the further pinning of the condensate and eventual FWC. In 430 431 addition, long-term condensation test was performed overnight for 11 hours on n_{SLIPS} showed continuous DWC performance at any given condensation time under optical microscopy. As a 432 consequence of the optical microscopy technique utilized here, the extent of pinning and 433 434 whether there is a shift on the maximum experimental radius r_{max} could not be resolved, which could be the scope for future research on the durability and stability of SLIPSs. To this extent, 435 we would like to remind the reader here that we recently demonstrated the feasibility of 436 operation of up to 192 hours within 16 experimental runs without appreciable change on the 437 overall heat transfer resistance of a two-phase closed thermosiphon paired with a 438 superhydrophilic evaporator and a SLIPS condenser. SLIPS condenser was fabricated and 439 impregnated following the very same procedure as the SLIPSs reported in this work [57]. 440

441

442 Steady State Heat Transfer through Condensing Droplets

Next, we estimate the theoretical surface heat flux at the different condensation times on each of our SLIPSs. The theoretical surface heat flux, q'' (kw/m²), can be calculated from coupling the individual droplet heat transfer function of their radius, $q_d(r)$, to the droplet 446 number density N(r) as: $q'' = \int q_d(r)N(r)dr$ [2, 71]. Since typically during dropwise 447 condensation droplet growth takes place via direct condensation for small droplet with radius 448 below the transition radius r_e ($r < r_e$) and via droplet coalescence for droplets with radius above 449 r_e ($r > r_e$), the total heat flux for dropwise condensation without taking into account droplet 450 shedding or sweeping is expressed as [19, 79]:

$$q'' = \int_{r_{\min}}^{r_{e}} q_{d}(r)n(r)dr + \int_{r_{e}}^{r_{\max}} q_{d}(r)N(r)dr$$
 Eq. 1

where n(r) and N(r) are the droplet number density or droplet size distribution of droplets below 451 and above the transition radius r_{e} , respectively. The transition radius r_{e} is calculated from the 452 nucleation site density $N_{\rm s}$ obtained before the first coalescence event taking place typically 453 before the first minute of the experimental observation as: $r_e = 1/\sqrt{4N_s}$ equals 5.4 µm, 5.7 µm, 454 5.0 μ m and 5.1 μ m on Mn_{SLIPS}, mn_{SLIPS}, n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS}, respectively. r_e values are in 455 agreement with those reported in Ref. 2 between 0.5 and 10 μ m [2]. Last, r_{max} and r_{min} are 456 defined as the maximum and minimum radius for droplet shedding and for heterogeneous 457 nucleation to occur, respectively [8, 68, 70, 80]. 458

On one hand, the droplet size distribution above the transition radius N(r) can be extracted from Figure 5 or from the different coefficients reported in Table 2, while the droplet size distribution for droplets below the transition radius n(r) can be estimated from the expressions proposed by Graham and Griffith [8], Tanaka [73], Kim and Kim [19], Miljkovic *et al.* [81], Wen *et al.* [71], Chavan *et al.*[18], and Alizadeh-Birjandi [82], amongst others. Nonetheless, in order to solely rely on our experimental data avoiding the use of empirical correlations, in this work we only make use of the N(r) reported in Figure 5 for droplets bigger than r_e .

466 On the other hand, the heat transfer through a single droplet q_d can be calculated adopting a 467 heat transfer thermal resistance based model for a droplet condensing on a hydrophobic surface 468 developed by Kim and Kim [2, 9, 19]. On nano-structured SHSs though, q_d can then be determined by making use of Kim and Kim's model adapted to account for the presence of
nano-structures as in the work of Miljkovic and Wang [9, 83]; while Weisensee *et al.* developed
a more appropriate model for nano-structured lubricant infused surfaces [2]. Nonetheless, the
presence of both micro-structures and nano-structures was not accounted for on earlier models,
which is one of the contributions of the present work. For the development of the heat transfer
resistance based model, the following assumptions/simplifications apply:

- the heat transfer resistance across the lubricant with thickness in the order of tens of
 nanometres cloaking the droplet [40, 57] can be neglected as we are comparing droplets
 with similar geometric configurations and the size of the droplets is at least two orders of
 magnitude greater than the thickness of the film;
- the heat transfer resistance across the lubricant confined between the top of the nanostructures and the condensing droplets is also neglected as the ternary configuration
 surface-lubricant-water studied here behaves in the impregnated emerged state, *i.e.*, the
 lubricant impregnates the structures but does not encapsulate their tops [37];
- the presence of a layer of Cu₂O earlier reported in the work of Enright *et al.* is also
 neglected as all four SLIPSs have been fabricated under similar conditions hence the
 similar thickness of the Cu₂O layer and hence comparable heat transfer resistance [16];

interfacial resistances between the droplet and the oil, the droplet and the solid surface,
and the oil and the solid surface can be neglected when compared to the other thermal
resistances, as assumed in the widely adopted thermal resistance based models [2, 9, 18,
19, 83].

After the above stated assumptions, schematics of the heat transfer resistance based model
in the absence and in the presence of micro-structures on our SLIPSs can be found on Figure
6a and Figure 6b, respectively. The complete schematics of the heat transfer resistance-based

493 model through a single droplet and simplified one along with the relevant assumptions can be494 found in Section SI.4 in the accompanying SI as Figure SI4 and Figure SI5, respectively.



Figure 6 – Schematics of the heat transfer resistance based model adopted for the
calculation of the thermal resistance thorough a single condensing droplet exerted by (a)
the nano-structures, the hydrophobic coating, the lubricant and the droplet, and (b) the
micro- and the nano-structures, the hydrophobic coating, the lubricant and the droplet.

From Figure 6 it is clear that the thermal resistance through the bulk copper and the condensing droplets is then function of the presence or absence of micro-structures. The heat transfer resistance through an individual droplet making use of the heat transfer resistance base model presented in Figure 6 can be then calculated as in Eq. 2:

$$q_{\rm d} = \frac{\Delta T}{R_{\rm tot}} = \frac{\Delta T}{R_{\rm i} + R_{\rm d} + R_{\rm l} + R_{\rm m/n/c/l}}$$
Eq. 2

where R_{tot} is the total heat transfer resistance accounting for: R_i as the interfacial thermal 504 505 resistance for condensation, R_d as the thermal resistance across the droplet, R_l as the thermal resistance across the lubricant and $R_{m/n/c/l}$ as the thermal resistance imposed by the micro- and 506 the nano-structures, the hydrophobic coating underneath the lubricant and the lubricant. In the 507 508 absence of micro-structures, $R_{m/n/c/l}$ is then replaced by $R_{n/c/l}$ where only the presence of nanostructures, the coating and the lubricant between the structures is accounted for as for earlier 509 reported superhydrophobic surfaces [9, 16, 83]. ΔT is the degree of subcooling typically 510 defined as the temperature between the vapour and the condenser surface $\Delta T = T_{sat} - T_{sub}$. ΔT 511

is calculated taking into account the Kelvin effect ΔT_c due to droplet the curvature r, as: $\Delta T =$

513
$$T_{\rm v} - T_{\rm s} - \Delta T_{\rm c}$$
 with $\Delta T_{\rm c} = \frac{2T_{\rm sat}\gamma_{\rm wa}}{h_{\rm fg}r\rho_w}$ [18, 84].

The interfacial thermal resistance is calculated as: $R_i = \frac{1}{h_i 2\pi r^2 (1 - \cos\theta_a)}$ with h_i as the 514 interfacial heat transfer coefficient $h_i = \frac{2\alpha}{(2-\alpha)\sqrt{2\pi R_g T_{sat}}} \frac{1}{T_{sat}}$, where α is the accommodation 515 coefficient function of the condensation conditions and the amount of non-condensable gases 516 [8, 9], $R_{\rm g}$ is the specific gas constant and $\rho_{\rm v}$ the water vapour specific density. All fluid and 517 vapour properties were estimated at T_{sub} , whereas the accommodation coefficient is assumed 518 as 0.04 as in the presence of condensable gases [2, 18]. The conduction thermal resistance 519 across the droplet is estimated from the droplet size as: $R_{\rm d} = \frac{\theta_{\rm a}}{4\pi k_{\rm w} r \sin \theta_{\rm a}}$ where $k_{\rm w}$ is the 520 water thermal resistance ($k_w = 0.57$ W/m/K). R_1 is the heat transfer resistance imposed by the 521 lubricant layer above the micro- and/or the nano-structures as: $R_{\rm l} = \frac{\delta_{\rm l}}{\pi r^2 k_{\rm l} \sin^2 \theta_{\rm c}}$, where $\delta_{\rm o}$ 522 and k_0 are the thickness and the thermal conductivity of the Kryotx[®] lubricant, respectively, 523 which is neglected as per the impregnated emerged state reported. The heat transfer resistance 524 imposed by the lubricant in between the micro- and the nano-structures will be then accounted 525 for in $R_{m/n/c/l}$ and in $R_{n/c/l}$. 526

527 On one hand, in the absence of micro-structures, the thermal resistance between the base of 528 the droplet and the solid surface $R_{n/c/l}$ can be considered as a resistance in parallel across the 529 nano-structures and the coating, and across the coating and the lubricant present within the 530 nano-structures. $R_{n/c/l}$ is then calculated as:

$$R_{n/c/l} = \frac{1}{\pi r^2 k_c \sin^2 \theta_a} \left(\frac{k_{CuO} f_n}{\delta_c k_{CuO} + h_{CuO} k_c} + \frac{k_l (1 - f_n)}{\delta_c k_l + h_{CuO} k_c} \right)^{-1}$$
 Eq. 3

where k_c , k_{CuO} and k_l are the thermal conductivity of the hydrophobic coating ($k_c = 0.2 \text{ W/m/K}$) 531 [16], the copper oxide ($k_{CuO} = 20 \text{ W/m/K}$) [2] and the Krytox[®] GPL103 ($k_1 = 0.09 \text{ W/m/K}$) [2], 532 respectively. δ_c is the thickness of the hydrophobic coating ($\delta_c = 1 \text{ nm}$)[16] and h_{CuO} is the 533 height of the nano-structures estimated from SEM and in agreement with Ref. 55 as $h_{CuO} = 300$ 534 ± 20 nm [55]. While f_n is the solid fraction of nano-structures estimated from the Cassie-Baxter 535 536 equation (solid fraction values from Table 1). Then, by substituting the different heat transfer 537 resistances (i.e., the thermal resistance across the nano-structured SLIPS $R_{n/c/l}$, the droplet heat transfer resistance R_d and the condensation interfacial heat transfer resistance R_i) into Eq. 2, the 538 539 theoretical heat transfer through a single condensing droplet and through the nano-structured SLIPS, i.e., in the absence of micro-structures, $q_{d/n/c/l}$ can be obtained as in Eq. 4: 540

$$q_{d/n/c/l} = \frac{\pi r^2 (T_v - T_s - \Delta T_c)}{\frac{1}{h_i 2 (1 - \cos \theta_a)} + \frac{r \theta_a}{4k_w \sin \theta_a} + \frac{1}{k_c \sin^2 \theta_a} \left(\frac{k_{CuO} f_n}{\delta_c k_{CuO} + h_{CuO} k_c} + \frac{k_l (1 - f_n)}{\delta_c k_l + h_{CuO} k_c}\right)^{-1}}$$
Eq. 4

On the other hand, in the presence of micro-structures the thermal resistance across the 541 micro- and the nano-structures from the bulk surface to the condensing droplets must be 542 considered as two paths in parallel as in Figure 6b. In the presence of micro-structures, for the 543 area fraction corresponding to the solid fraction of micro-structures $\varphi_{\rm m}$, the thermal resistance 544 is exerted by the copper micro-structures and an additional resistance in parallel including the 545 nano-structures and the coating and the lubricant and the coating as for the nano-structured 546 547 case $R_{n/c/l}$, *i.e.*, Figure 6a and Eq. 3. The other path results from the area of void fraction (1- $\varphi_{\rm m}$), i.e., absence of micro-structures, where a parallel resistance as in the nano-structured case 548 including the nano-structures, the coating and the lubricant $R_{n/c/l}$ and the additional presence of 549 550 lubricant in between the micro-structures must be accounted for. Then, $R_{m/n/c/l}$ is estimated as:

$$R_{m/n/c/l} = \varphi_m(R_{Cu} + R_{n/c/l}) + (1 - \varphi_m)(R_l + R_{n/c/l})$$
 Eq. 5

where R_1 is the resistance imposed by the lubricant impregnated between the micro-structures with thickness equivalent to the height of the micro-structures h_{Cu} (included as S_z in Table 1) as $R_1 = h_{Cu}/\pi r^2 k_1 \sin^2 \theta_a$, while R_{Cu} is the resistance imposed by the micro-structures as $R_{Cu} = h_{Cu}/\pi r^2 k_{Cu} \sin^2 \theta_a$. Then by substituting Eq. 3 and the different heat transfer resistances R_{Cu} and R_1 into Eq. 5, the heat transfer resistance on a SLIPS in the presence of both micro- and nano-structures, the coating and the lubricant present in between the micro-and the nanostructures, $R_{m/n/c/1}$ can be rewritten as Eq. 6:

$$R_{m/n/c/l} = \varphi_{m} \left(\frac{h_{Cu}}{\pi r^{2} k_{Cu} \sin^{2} \theta_{a}} + \frac{1}{\pi r^{2} k_{c} \sin^{2} \theta_{a}} \left(\frac{k_{Cu0} f_{n}}{\delta_{c} k_{Cu0} + h_{Cu0} k_{c}} + \frac{k_{l} (1 - f_{n})}{\delta_{c} k_{l} + h_{Cu0} k_{c}} \right)^{-1} \right) +$$
Eq. 6
+ $(1 - \varphi_{m}) \left(\frac{h_{l}}{\pi r^{2} k_{l} \sin^{2} \theta_{a}} + \frac{1}{\pi r^{2} k_{c} \sin^{2} \theta_{a}} \left(\frac{k_{Cu0} f_{n}}{\delta_{c} k_{Cu0} + h_{Cu0} k_{c}} + \frac{k_{l} (1 - f_{n})}{\delta_{c} k_{l} + h_{Cu0} k_{c}} \right)^{-1} \right)$

Next, by substituting $R_{m/n/c/l}$ (Eq. 6) and the other heat transfer resistances, i.e., interfacial heat transfer resistance R_i and the heat transfer resistance through a condensing droplet R_d , into Eq. 2, the theoretical heat transfer across a single droplet and across the micro-/nano-structured SLIPS $q_{d/m/n/c/l}$ adopts the form of Eq. 7:

$$q_{d/m/n/c/l} = \frac{\pi r^{2}(T_{v} - T_{s} - \Delta T_{c})}{\frac{1}{h_{i}^{2}(1 - \cos\theta_{a})} + \frac{r\theta_{a}}{4k_{w}\sin\theta_{a}} + \left[\begin{array}{c} \varphi_{m} \left(\frac{h_{Cu}}{\pi r^{2}k_{c} \sin^{2}\theta_{a}} + \frac{1}{\pi r^{2}k_{c} \sin^{2}\theta_{a}} \left(\frac{k_{Cu} \sigma f_{n}}{\delta c^{k} c_{u0} + h_{Cu} \sigma k_{c}} + \frac{k_{l}(1 - f_{n})}{\delta c^{k} c_{u0} + k_{c} \sigma k_{c}} \right)^{-1} \right) + \\ + (1 - \varphi_{m}) \left(\frac{h_{l}}{\pi r^{2}k_{l} \sin^{2}\theta_{a}} + \frac{1}{\pi r^{2}k_{c} \sin^{2}\theta_{a}} \left(\frac{k_{Cu} \sigma f_{n}}{\delta c^{k} c_{u0} + h_{Cu} \sigma k_{c}} + \frac{k_{l}(1 - f_{n})}{\delta c^{k} l_{l} + h_{Cu} \sigma k_{c}} \right)^{-1} \right) \right] \end{array}$$
Eq. 7

Next, Figure 7a includes the different heat transfer through individual condensing droplets including the nano-structured surface and the oil for n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} as $q_{d/n/c/l}$; and through individual condensing droplets, the micro-/nano-structures and the oil on Mn_{SLIPS} and mn_{SLIPS} surfaces as $q_{d/m/n/c/l}$, which are calculated by making use of Eq. 4 and Eq. 7, respectively. In addition, Figure 7b includes the droplet number density averaged for the different condensation times analysed (t = 5, 10, 15, 22 and 30 minutes) for Mn_{SLIPS} , mn_{SLIPS} , n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} :



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570 Figure 7 – (a) Theoretical heat transfer through single condensing droplets, q_i (W), versus droplet 571 radius, r (μ m), and (b) average droplet number density N(r) [#/mm³] versus droplet radius, r (μ m), 572 on Mn_{SLIPS} (gold solid line), mn_{SLIPS} (red dotted line), n_{SLIPS} (blue dashed line), and N_{SLIPS} (green 573 dashed dotted line). Droplet number density power-law fitting proposed by Weisensee *et al.* is 574 included in black solid line [2] and correlation developed by Rose and Glicksman is included in 575 black dotted line [66, 72].

From Figure 7a, the different heat transfer through individual droplets function of the SLIPS 576 underneath is presented. Clear differences when comparing the nano-structured n_{SLIPS} and 577 N_{SLIPS} to the micro-/nano-structured Mn_{SLIPS} and mn_{SLIPS} are evident as a consequence of the 578 greater heat transfer resistance imposed mainly by the lubricant present in between the micro-579 580 structures. Up to 50% greater heat transfer through individual droplets with sizes between 1 and few tens of micrometres (for droplets with sizes in the same order of magnitude or below 581 to that of the micro-structures) is put forward on solely nano-structured n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} when 582 compared to hierarchical ones Mn_{SLIPS} and mn_{SLIPS}. It is only when the size of the condensing 583 droplets becomes one order of magnitude greater than that of the micro-structures when the 584 heat transfer through single condensing droplets approaches that on nano-structured one as the 585 thermal resistance through the condensing droplets becomes dominant when compared to the 586 substrate thermal resistance. When comparing the two hierarchical micro-/nano-structured 587 SLIPSs, lower heat transfer values are reported for Mn_{SLIPS} due to the greater size of the micro-588

structures (see S_z in Table 1) and hence greater thickness of the lubricant in between the structures hindering the heat transfer. When comparing the nano-structured SLIPS n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} no appreciable quantitative differences are observed as the structural parameters were similar, i.e., in the same orders of magnitude, despite of the different shape and geometry of the nano-features. Similar discussion applies if considering the heat transfer through the solid surface structure negligible when compared to the other thermal resistances.

595 The greater heat transfer through single droplets on n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} will presumably provide better heat transfer performance given that there are no major appreciable shifts on the 596 droplet number density or on the droplet size distribution when compared to Mn_{SLIPS} and 597 mn_{SLIPS}. The droplet number density may vary as a consequence of the different interactions 598 between the condensate and the different structured SLIPSs shifting the trends towards smaller 599 or bigger sizes of the condensing droplets depending on their ability for droplet shedding [56]. 600 601 When looking into the droplet number density reported in Figure 7b no major qualitative differences are found when comparing the averaged trends for all SLIPSs studied. It is noted 602 though that up to 50% greater number of droplets for droplet sizes between 1 and 10 µm on 603 hierarchical Mn_{SLIPS} when compared to mn_{SLIPS} , n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} , presumably due to the better 604 droplet shedding performance of Mn_{SLIPS}. We stress here on the reasonable qualitative and 605 quantitative (within the same orders of magnitude) agreement on the droplet number 606 distribution when comparing this work to Weisensee et al., see Figure 7 [2]. 607

Last, to obtain the theoretical surface heat flux q'', we couple the theoretical heat transfer through individual condensing droplets in the presence $(q_{d/m/n/c/l})$ and absence of microstructures $(q_{d/n/c/l})$ reported in Figure 7a to the experimental droplet number density N(r)reported in Figure 5 for droplets above the transition radius r_e at different intervals of time t on the different SLIPSs studied. Figure 8 provides the average theoretical surface heat flux q''calculated from the averaged droplet size distribution reported in Figure 5 and the theoretical

surface heat flux at specific condensation times making use of their instantaneous droplet size 614 distribution at t = 5, 10, 15, 22 and 30 minutes also included in Figure 5. By representing the 615 surface heat flux at different condensation times rather than the averaged one, the cyclic 616 dynamic condensation heat transfer when making use of instantaneous droplet number 617 densities for Mn_{SLIPS}, mn_{SLIPS}, n_{SLIPS}, and N_{SLIPS} is captured. Moreover, we would like to 618 619 highlight here that the theoretical surface heat flux reported in Figure 8 might be overestimated 620 as per the presumably lower concentration and temperature of the water vapour near the condensing surface when compared to the conditions assumed. Local depletion of the water 621 622 vapour concentration near surfaces as per the experimental conditions adopted.





Figure 8 – Theoretical surface heat flux, q'' (kW/m²), versus time, t (minutes), on Mn_{SLIPS} (squares), mn_{SLIPS} (circles), n_{SLIPS} (up-triangles), and N_{SLIPS} (rhomboids), at t = 5, 10, 15, 22 and 30 minutes. Horizontal lines indicate the average theoretical surface heat flux, q'' (kW/m²), estimated from the average droplet number density reported in Figure 5 on Mn_{SLIPS} (solid line), mn_{SLIPS} (dotted line), n_{SLIPS} (dashed line) and N_{SLIPS} (dashed-dotted line). Error bars presented

629 have been calculated as the standard deviation of the different *instantaneous* theoretical heat 630 surface heat flux for t = 5, 10, 15, 22 and 30 minutes for each SLIPSs.

From Figure 8, the high and homogeneous theoretical surface heat flux in the order of tens 631 of kW/m² reported on the different SLIPSs is owed to the low adhesion of the droplets to the 632 surface easing the continuous nucleation, growth and self-removal of the condensate in a 633 continuous DWC manner[6, 22, 66]. When comparing the different SLIPSs, a 100% greater 634 overall theoretical surface heat flux is reported in the absence of micro-structures, i.e., n_{SLPS} 635 and N_{SLIPS}, as a consequence of the reported 50% greater heat transfer through individual 636 condensing droplets with sizes of tens of micrometres and smaller reported in Figure 7a. The 637 presence of micro-structures exerts an additional heat transfer resistance through the micro-638 639 structures and the lubricant on Mn_{SLIPS} and mn_{SLIPS} when compared to nano-structured n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS}, i.e., $R_{m/n/c/l} > R_{n/c/l}$; hence the lower theoretical surface heat flux reported on Mn_{SLIPS} 640 and mn_{SLIPS}. Theoretical surface heat flux values reported here are found within 10 kW/m² to 641 642 60 kW/m^2 , which are in the same range to those experimentally reported in the literature on SHSs[11, 68] and on SLIPS[47] between 10 kW/m² and 200 kW/m². The wide range of surface 643 heat flux arises from the different thermal resistance of the substrate, type of fluid, presence or 644 absence of non-condensable gases and/or subcooling conditions. 645

On a different note, the theoretical surface heat flux is also function of the droplet number 646 density, which in turn shifts depending on the ability of the surface to shed the condensate. In 647 the present case, the droplet size distribution for the hierarchical Mn_{SLIPS} is shifted towards 648 greater number of small sized droplets while the droplet number density is also constrained to 649 smaller droplet sizes as it was represented in Figure 5 and further summarized in Figure 7b. 650 651 Despites the 50% greater droplet number density found for droplet sizes between 1 µm and 10 μm on hierarchical Mn_{SLIPS} (Figure 7b), the additional heat transfer resistance imposed by the 652 micro-structures and the lubricant limits the heat transfer through individual droplets $q_{d/m/n/c/l}$ 653

when compared to nano-structured n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS} , i.e., $q_{d/m/n/c/l} < q_{d/n/c/l}$. As a consequence, the heat transfer performance on hierarchical SLIPSs is lower than that of nano-structured ones. Last, we would like to highlight the cyclic oscillatory nature of the heat transfer values reported in Figure 8 for each of the SLIPSs studied. Theoretical heat transfer values in Figure 8 are sensitive to the droplet number density N(r) as per the different droplet number density versus time reported in Figure 5 and Table 2.

661 Conclusions

An experimental investigation on the condensation performance of hierarchical micro- and 662 nano- and on nano-structured slippery lubricant infused porous surfaces (SLIPSs) has been 663 carried out. Two hierarchical micro-/nano-structured SLIPSs varying in the size and density of 664 665 the micro-structures and two nano-structured ones have been fabricated and observed under optical microscopy and at the macroscale during condensation phase-change. From 666 experimental observations the average droplet number density and the droplet number density 667 at different condensation times (t = 1, 5, 10, 15, 22 and 30 minutes) have been extracted and 668 plotted versus droplet size. Different droplet number density and different maximum droplet 669 radius are reported depending on the SLIPSs and the condensation times studied. Up to 50% 670 greater droplet number density is reported on the hierarchical Mn_{SLIPS} for droplets sizes 671 between 1 and 10 micrometres, which is owed to the ability of this hierarchical surface to shed 672 the condensate shifting the droplet number density towards smaller sizes allowing for a greater 673 number of condensing droplets. Moreover, the transient nature of the droplet number density 674 is pointed out as one of the additional contribution of this work. Furthermore, resistance based 675 model earlier proposed for nano-structured superhydrophobic and lubricant infused surfaces is 676 revisited to account for the heat transfer through individual droplets in the presence of micro-677 structures and nano-structures and the lubricant. A 50% greater heat transfer is achieved 678 through individual droplets in the absence of micro-structures when compared to hierarchical 679 SLIPSs caused by the absence of the additional thermal resistance imposed by the micro-680 structures and the lubricant. Then, by coupling the heat transfer through individual droplets to 681 the droplet number density, the overall surface heat flux and the heat flux at different 682 condensation times is estimated. Up to 100% greater overall heat transfer performance is 683 684 estimated on nano-structured SLIPS (n_{SLIPS} and N_{SLIPS}) when compared to hierarchical ones (Mn_{SLIPS} and mn_{SLIPS}). Findings presented here are of importance for the optimisation and 685 characterisation of SLIPS for condensation heat transfer and other related applications. 686

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702 Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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709 Graphical Abstract



712 **References**

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